SOME BERNSTEIN FUNCTIONS AND INTEGRAL REPRESENTATIONS CONCERNING HARMONIC AND GEOMETRIC MEANS

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ABSTRACT. It is general knowledge that the harmonic mean $H(x,y)=\frac{2}{\frac{1}{x}+\frac{1}{y}}$ and that the geometric mean $G(x,y)=\sqrt{xy}$, where x and y are two positive numbers. In the paper, the authors show by several approaches that the harmonic mean $H_{x,y}(t)=H(x+t,y+t)$ and the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)=G(x+t,y+t)$ are all Bernstein functions of $t\in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ and establish integral representations of the means $H_{x,y}(t)$ and $G_{x,y}(t)$.

1. Introduction

1.1. **Some definitions.** We recall some notions and definitions.

Definition 1.1 ([17, 27]). A function f is said to be completely monotonic on an interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ if f has derivatives of all orders on I and

$$(-1)^n f^{(n)}(t) \ge 0 \tag{1.1}$$

for all $t \in I$ and $n \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 1.2 ([2]). If $f^{(k)}(t)$ for some nonnegative integer k is completely monotonic on an interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, but $f^{(k-1)}(t)$ is not completely monotonic on I, then f(t) is called a completely monotonic function of k-th order on an interval I.

Definition 1.3 ([20, 22]). A function f is said to be logarithmically completely monotonic on an interval $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ if its logarithm $\ln f$ satisfies

$$(-1)^k [\ln f(t)]^{(k)} \ge 0 \tag{1.2}$$

for all $t \in I$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 1.4 ([25, 27]). A function $f: I \subseteq (-\infty, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ is called a Bernstein function on I if f(t) has derivatives of all orders and f'(t) is completely monotonic on I

Definition 1.5 ([25]). A Stieltjes function is a function $f:(0,\infty)\to [0,\infty)$ which can be written in the form

$$f(x) = \frac{a}{x} + b + \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{s+x} d\mu(s),$$
 (1.3)

where a,b are nonnegative constants and μ is a nonnegative measure on $(0,\infty)$ such that $\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+s} \, \mathrm{d}\mu(s) < \infty$.

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Definition 1.6 ([9]). Let f(x) be a nonnegative function and have derivatives of all orders on $(0, \infty)$. A number $r \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\pm \infty\}$ is said to be the completely monotonic degree of f(x) with respect to $x \in (0, \infty)$ if $x^r f(x)$ is a completely monotonic function on $(0, \infty)$ but $x^{r+\varepsilon} f(x)$ is not for any positive number $\varepsilon > 0$.

In what follows, for convenience, we denote the sets of completely monotonic functions on $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, logarithmically completely monotonic functions on $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, Stieltjes functions, and Bernstein functions on $I \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ by $\mathcal{C}[I]$, $\mathcal{L}[I]$, \mathcal{S} , and $\mathcal{B}[I]$ respectively.

1.2. Some relationships and a characterization. Now we briefly describe some basic relationships between the above defined classes of functions and list a characterization of Bernstein functions on $(0, \infty)$.

In [3, 10, 20, 22], any logarithmically completely monotonic function on an interval I was once again proved to be completely monotonic on I. In [3], the set of all Stieltjes functions was proved to be a subset of all logarithmically completely monotonic functions on $(0, \infty)$. See also [24, Remark 4.8]. Conclusively,

$$\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{L}[(0,\infty)] \subset \mathcal{C}[(0,\infty)]. \tag{1.4}$$

It is obvious that any nonnegative completely monotonic function of first order is a Bernstein function.

The relation between Bernstein functions and logarithmically completely monotonic functions was discovered in [7, pp. 161–162, Theorem 3] and [25, p. 45, Proposition 5.17], which reads that the reciprocal of any positive Bernstein function is logarithmically completely monotonic. In other words,

$$0 < f \in \mathcal{B}[I] \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{f} \in \mathcal{L}[I]. \tag{1.5}$$

A relation between $\mathcal S$ and $\mathcal B[(0,\infty)]$ was given by [4, Theorem 5.4] which may be recited as

$$0 < f \in \mathcal{S} \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{f} \in \mathcal{B}[(0, \infty)]. \tag{1.6}$$

It is easy to see that the degree of any completely monotonic function on $(0, \infty)$ is at least zero. Conversely, if a nonnegative function f(x) on $(0, \infty)$ has a nonnegative degree r, then it must be a completely monotonic function on $(0, \infty)$. See [9, p. 9890].

Bernstein functions can be characterized by [25, p. 15, Theorem 3.2] which states that a function $f:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$ is a Bernstein function if and only if it admits the representation

$$f(x) = a + bx + \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-xt}) d\mu(t), \qquad (1.7)$$

where $a, b \geq 0$ and μ is a measure on $(0, \infty)$ satisfying $\int_0^\infty \min\{1, t\} d\mu(t) < \infty$. For information on characterizations of the classes $\mathcal{C}[(0, \infty)]$ and $\mathcal{L}[(0, \infty)]$, please refer to related texts in [3, 25, 27] and references cited therein.

1.3. Some means. We recall from [26] that the extended mean value E(r,s;x,y) may be defined by

$$E(r, s; x, y) = \left[\frac{r(y^s - x^s)}{s(y^r - x^r)} \right]^{1/(s-r)}, \qquad rs(r - s)(x - y) \neq 0;$$
 (1.8)

$$E(r,0;x,y) = \left[\frac{y^r - x^r}{r(\ln y - \ln x)}\right]^{1/r}, \qquad r(x-y) \neq 0;$$
 (1.9)

$$E(r, r; x, y) = \frac{1}{e^{1/r}} \left(\frac{x^{x^r}}{y^{y^r}}\right)^{1/(x^r - y^r)}, \qquad r(x - y) \neq 0; \qquad (1.10)$$

$$E(0,0;x,y) = \sqrt{xy}, \qquad x \neq y; \qquad (1.11)$$

$$E(r,s;x,x) = x, \qquad x = y;$$

where x, y are positive numbers and $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$. Because this mean was first defined in [26], so it is also called Stolarsky's mean by a number of mathematicians. Many special means with two positive variables are special cases of E, for example,

$$E(r,2r;x,y) = M_r(x,y), \qquad \text{(power mean)}$$

$$E(1,p;x,y) = L_p(x,y), \qquad \text{(generalized logarithmic mean)}$$

$$E(1,1;x,y) = I(x,y), \qquad \text{(exponential mean)}$$

$$E(1,2;x,y) = A(x,y), \qquad \text{(arithmetic mean)}$$

$$E(0,0;x,y) = G(x,y), \qquad \text{(geometric mean)}$$

$$E(-2,-1;x,y) = H(x,y), \qquad \text{(harmonic mean)}$$

$$E(0,1;x,y) = L(x,y). \qquad \text{(logarithmic mean)}$$

For more information on E, please refer to the monograph [6], the papers [11, 12, 19, 13], and a lot of closely-related references therein.

1.4. The arithmetic mean is a Bernstein function. It is easy to see that the arithmetic mean

$$A_{x,y}(t) = A(x+t, y+t) = A(x, y) + t$$

is a trivial Bernstein function of $t \in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y>0.

1.5. The exponential mean is a Bernstein function. In [23, p. 116, Remark 6], it was pointed out that,

(1) by standard arguments, it is easy to verify that the reciprocal of the exponential mean

$$I_{x,y}(t) = I(x+t, y+t) = \frac{1}{e} \left[\frac{(x+t)^{x+t}}{(y+t)^{y+t}} \right]^{1/(x-y)}$$
(1.12)

for x,y>0 with $x\neq y$ is a logarithmically completely monotonic function of $t\in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty);$

(2) from the newly-discovered integral representation

$$I(x,y) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{y-x} \int_{x}^{y} \ln u \, \mathrm{d}u\right),\tag{1.13}$$

it is easy to obtain that the exponential mean $I_{x,y}(t)$ for $t > -\min\{x,y\}$ with $x \neq y$ is also a completely monotonic function of first order (that is, a Bernstein function).

1.6. The logarithmic mean is a Bernstein function. In [18, p. 616, Remark 3.7], the logarithmic mean

$$L_{x,y}(t) = L(x+t, y+t) (1.14)$$

was proved to be increasing and concave in $t > -\min\{x,y\}$ for x,y > 0 with $x \neq y$. More strongly, the logarithmic mean $L_{x,y}(t)$ was proved in [21, Theorem 1] to be a completely monotonic function of first order on $(-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y > 0 with $x \neq y$. Therefore, the logarithmic mean $L_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function of $t \in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$.

Remark 1.1. By [7, pp. 161–162, Theorem 3] or [25, p. 45, Proposition 5.17], the logarithmically complete monotonicity of the exponential mean $I_{x,y}(t)$ and the logarithmic mean $L_{x,y}(t)$ can be deduced respectively from their common property that they are Bernstein functions.

1.7. Main results. The goals of this paper are to prove that the harmonic mean

$$H_{x,y}(t) = H(x+t, y+t) = \frac{2}{\frac{1}{x+t} + \frac{1}{y+t}}$$
(1.15)

and the geometric mean

$$G_{x,y}(t) = G(x+t, y+t) = \sqrt{(x+t)(y+t)}$$
 (1.16)

are all Bernstein functions of t on $(-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y>0 with $x\neq y$, and to establish integral representations of $H_{x,y}(t)$ and $G_{x,y}(t)$.

2. Lemmas

In order to prove our main results, the following lemmas are needed.

Lemma 2.1. For $i \in \mathbb{N}$, the *i*-th derivatives of the functions

$$h(t) = \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{t}}, (2.1)$$

the reciprocal $\frac{1}{h(t)}$, and

$$H(t) = h(t) + \frac{1}{h(t)}$$
 (2.2)

on $(0, \infty)$ may be computed by

$$h^{(i)}(t) = \frac{(-1)^i}{2^i t^{i+1} (1+t)^{i-1} h(t)} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} a_{i,k} t^k,$$
 (2.3)

$$\left[\frac{1}{h(t)}\right]^{(i)} = \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^i t^i (1+t)^i h(t)} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} b_{i,k} t^k, \tag{2.4}$$

$$H^{(i)}(t) = \frac{(-1)^i}{2^i t^{i+1} (1+t)^i h(t)} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} c_{i,k} t^k,$$
 (2.5)

where

$$a_{i,k} = \frac{(i-1)!i!(2i-2k-1)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k)!k!} 2^k,$$
(2.6)

$$b_{i,k} = \frac{(i-1)!i!(2i-2k-3)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k)!k!} 2^k,$$
(2.7)

$$c_{i,k} = \frac{(i-1)!(i+1)!(2i-2k-1)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k+1)!k!} 2^k.$$
(2.8)

Consequently, the functions h(t) and H(t) are completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$, and the reciprocal $\frac{1}{h(t)}$ is a Bernstein function on $(0, \infty)$.

Inductive proof of Lemma 2.1. A direct calculation yields $h'(t) = -\frac{1}{2t^2h(t)}$, which means that

$$a_{1,0} = 1. (2.9)$$

So, the formulas (2.3) and (2.6) are valid for i = 1 and k = 0. Differentiating on both sides of (2.3) gives

$$h^{(i+1)}(t) = \left[h^{(i)}(t)\right]' = \left[\frac{(-1)^i}{2^i t^{i+1} (1+t)^{i-1} h(t)} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} a_{i,k} t^k\right]'$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^{i+1} t^{i+2} (1+t)^i h(t)} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} [1+2(i-k)+2(2i-k)t] a_{i,k} t^k$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^{i+1} t^{i+2} (1+t)^i h(t)} \sum_{k=0}^{i} a_{i+1,k} t^k.$$

Because

$$\begin{split} \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} [1+2(i-k)+2(2i-k)t] a_{i,k} t^k &= \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} [1+2(i-k)] a_{i,k} t^k + \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} 2(2i-k) a_{i,k} t^{k+1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} [1+2(i-k)] a_{i,k} t^k + \sum_{k=1}^{i} 2(2i-k+1) a_{i,k-1} t^k \\ &= (1+2i) a_{i,0} + \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} \{ [1+2(i-k)] a_{i,k} + 2(2i-k+1) a_{i,k-1} \} t^k + 2(i+1) a_{i,i-1} t^i, \end{split}$$

we obtain

$$a_{i+1,0} = (1+2i)a_{i,0}, (2.10)$$

$$a_{i+1,i} = 2ia_{i,i-1}, (2.11)$$

and, for 0 < k < i,

$$a_{i+1,k} = [1 + 2(i-k)]a_{i,k} + 2(2i-k+1)a_{i,k-1}.$$
(2.12)

Combining (2.9) with (2.10) and (2.11) results in

$$a_{i,0} = (2i-1)!! (2.13)$$

and

$$a_{i,i-1} = 2^{i-1}i!. (2.14)$$

Taking k = i - 1 in (2.12) and using (2.14) give

$$a_{i+1,i-1} = 3a_{i,i-1} + 2(i+2)a_{i,i-2} = 3 \cdot 2^{i-1}i! + 2(i+2)a_{i,i-2}.$$
 (2.15)

From (2.13), it is easily deduced that $a_{2,0} = 3$. Substituting this into (2.15) and recurring repeatedly lead to

$$a_{i,i-2} = 3(i-1)2^{i-3}i!. (2.16)$$

Taking k = i - 2 in (2.12) and using (2.16) show

$$a_{i+1,i-2} = 5a_{i,i-2} + 2(i+3)a_{i,i-3} = 15(i-1)2^{i-3}i! + 2(i+3)a_{i,i-3}.$$
 (2.17)

From (2.13), it is readily deduced that $a_{3,0} = 15$. Substituting this into (2.17) and recurring repeatedly reveal

$$a_{i,i-3} = 5(i-2)(i-1)2^{i-5}i!. (2.18)$$

Taking k = i - 3 in (2.12) and using (2.18) show

$$a_{i+1,i-3} = 7a_{i,i-3} + 2(i+4)a_{i,i-4} = 35(i-2)(i-1)2^{i-5}i! + 2(i+4)a_{i,i-4}.$$
 (2.19)

From (2.13), it is immediately obtained that $a_{4,0} = 105$. Substituting this into (2.19) and recurring repeatedly yield

$$a_{i,i-4} = \frac{35}{3}(i-3)(i-2)(i-1)2^{i-8}i!.$$
(2.20)

By the same arguments as above, we may obtain

$$a_{i,i-5} = 21(i-4)(i-3)(i-2)(i-1)2^{i-11}i!$$
(2.21)

and

$$a_{i,i-6} = \frac{77}{5}(i-5)(i-4)(i-3)(i-2)(i-1)2^{i-13}i!.$$
 (2.22)

Inductively, we can derive that

$$a_{i,i-k} = \lambda_{i,i-k} \frac{(i-1)!}{(i-k)!} 2^{i-k} i!$$
(2.23)

for 0 < k < i. Specially, we have

$$\lambda_{i,i-1} = 1, \qquad \lambda_{i,i-2} = \frac{3}{2}, \qquad \lambda_{i,i-3} = \frac{5}{4}, \lambda_{i,i-4} = \frac{35}{3 \cdot 2^4}, \quad \lambda_{i,i-5} = \frac{21}{2^6}, \quad \lambda_{i,i-6} = \frac{77}{5 \cdot 2^7}.$$

$$(2.24)$$

Replacing k by $i - \ell$ in (2.23) yields

$$a_{i,\ell} = \lambda_{i,\ell} \frac{(i-1)!}{\ell!} 2^{\ell} i!$$
 (2.25)

for $0 < \ell < i$. Substituting (2.25) into (2.12) leads to

$$[1 + 2(i - \ell)]\lambda_{i,\ell} + \ell(2i - \ell + 1)\lambda_{i,\ell-1} = i(i+1)\lambda_{i+1,\ell}$$
(2.26)

for $0 < \ell < i$. The equality (2.26) is equivalent to

$$(1+2k)\lambda_{i,i-k} + (i-k)(i+k+1)\lambda_{i,i-k-1} = i(i+1)\lambda_{i+1,i-k}$$
(2.27)

for 0 < k < i.

The quantities in (2.24) implies that $\lambda_{i,i-k} = \mu_k$, that is, $\lambda_{i,i-k}$ is independent of *i*. Then the equality (2.27) may be written as

$$(1+2k)\mu_k = [i(i+1) - (i-k)(i+k+1)]\mu_{k+1} = k(1+k)\mu_{k+1}$$
 (2.28)

for 0 < k < i. Recurring (2.28) by $\mu_1 = \lambda_{i,i-1} = 1$ reveals

$$\mu_k = \lambda_{i,i-k} = \frac{(2k-1)!!}{(k-1)!k!} \tag{2.29}$$

for 0 < k < i. As a result, by (2.29), we conclude that

$$a_{i,i-k} = \frac{(2k-1)!!}{(k-1)!k!} \frac{(i-1)!}{(i-k)!} 2^{i-k} i!$$
(2.30)

for 0 < k < i. Replacing k by $i - \ell$ in (2.30) shows

$$a_{i,\ell} = \frac{(2i - 2\ell - 1)!!}{(i - \ell - 1)!(i - \ell)!} \frac{(i - 1)!}{\ell!} 2^{\ell} i!$$
(2.31)

for $0 < \ell < i$. It is easy to verify that the sequence (2.31) for $0 \le \ell \le i-1$ meets the recursion formulas (2.10), (2.11), and (2.12). The formulas (2.3) and (2.6) for general terms are thus proved.

It is obvious that $h'(t) = -\frac{1}{2t^2h(t)}$ which is equivalent to $\frac{1}{h(t)} = -2t^2h'(t)$. Therefore, using the formulas (2.3) and (2.6) just verified, we have

$$\begin{split} \left[\frac{1}{h(t)}\right]^{(i)} &= -2\left[t^2h'(t)\right]^{(i)} \\ &= -2\sum_{\ell=0}^{i}\binom{i}{\ell}\left(t^2\right)^{(\ell)}h^{(i-\ell+1)}(t) \\ &= -2\left[\binom{i}{0}t^2h^{(i+1)}(t) + 2\binom{i}{1}th^{(i)}(t) + 2\binom{i}{2}h^{(i-1)}(t)\right] \\ &= -2\left[\frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^{i+1}t^i(1+t)^ih(t)}\sum_{k=0}^{i}a_{i+1,k}t^k + \frac{(-1)^{i}i}{2^{i-1}t^i(1+t)^{i-1}h(t)}\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}a_{i,k}t^k \right. \\ &\quad + \frac{(-1)^{i-1}(i-1)i}{2^{i-1}t^i(1+t)^{i-2}h(t)}\sum_{k=0}^{i-2}a_{i-1,k}t^k \right] \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^{i}t^i(1+t)^ih(t)}\left\{4i(1+t)\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}a_{i,k}t^k - \sum_{k=0}^{i}a_{i+1,k}t^k \right. \\ &\quad - 4(i-1)i(1+t)^2\sum_{k=0}^{i-2}a_{i-1,k}t^k \right] \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^{i}t^i(1+t)^ih(t)}\left\{4ia_{i,0} - 4i(i-1)a_{i-1,0} - a_{i+1,0} \right. \\ &\quad + \left[4i(a_{i,1}+a_{i,0}) - 4i(i-1)(a_{i-1,1}+2a_{i-1,0}) - a_{i+1,1}\right]t \right. \\ &\quad + \left[4ia_{i,i-1}+a_{i,i-2}) - 4i(i-1)(a_{i-1,i-3}+2a_{i-1,i-2}) - a_{i+1,i-1}\right]t^{i-1} \\ &\quad + \left[4ia_{i,i-1}-4i(i-1)a_{i-1,i-2}-a_{i+1,i}\right]t^i + \sum_{k=2}^{i-2}\left[4i(a_{i,k}+a_{i,k-1}) - 4i(i-1)(a_{i-1,k}+2a_{i-1,k-1}+a_{i-1,k-2}) - a_{i+1,k}\right]t^k \right\} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^{i+1}}{2^{i}t^i(1+t)^ih(t)}\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}\frac{(i-1)!i!(2i-2k-3)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k)!k!}2^kt^k. \end{split}$$

Hence, the general formulas (2.4) and (2.7) are obtained. Adding the two formulas (2.3) and (2.4) yields

$$h^{(i)}(t) + \left[\frac{1}{h(t)}\right]^{(i)} = \frac{(-1)^i}{2^i t^{i+1} (1+t)^i h(t)} \left[(1+t) \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} a_{i,k} t^k - t \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} b_{i,k} t^k \right]$$

$$\begin{split} &=\frac{(-1)^i}{2^it^{i+1}(1+t)^ih(t)}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}(a_{i,k}-b_{i,k})t^{k+1}+\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}a_{i,k}t^k\right]\\ &=\frac{(-1)^i}{2^it^{i+1}(1+t)^ih(t)}\left[\sum_{k=1}^{i}(a_{i,k-1}-b_{i,k-1})t^k+\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}a_{i,k}t^k\right]\\ &=\frac{(-1)^i}{2^it^{i+1}(1+t)^ih(t)}\left[a_{i,0}+\sum_{k=1}^{i-1}(a_{i,k-1}-b_{i,k-1}+a_{i,k})t^k+(a_{i,i-1}-b_{i,i-1})t^i\right]\\ &=\frac{(-1)^i}{2^it^{i+1}(1+t)^ih(t)}\left\{(2i-1)!!+\sum_{k=1}^{i-1}\frac{(i-1)!(i+1)!(2i-2k-1)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k+1)!k!}2^kt^k\right\}\\ &=\frac{(-1)^i}{2^it^{i+1}(1+t)^ih(t)}\sum_{k=0}^{i-1}\frac{(i-1)!(i+1)!(2i-2k-1)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k+1)!k!}2^kt^k. \end{split}$$

This implies that the function H(t) is completely monotonic on $(0, \infty)$. The proof of Lemma 2.1 is completed.

Short proofs of a part of Lemma 2.1. In [25, p. 13, Remark 2.4], it was collected as an example that the function $\frac{1}{a+t}$ is a Stieltjes function for a>0. The property (iv) in Section 3 of [4] (See also the property (vii) in [16, Theorem 1.3]) reads that if $f\in\mathcal{S}$ then $f^{\alpha}\in\mathcal{S}$ for $0\leq\alpha\leq1$. Specially for a=1 and $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}$, we have $h_1(t)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t}}\in\mathcal{S}$. The property (i) in Section 3 of [4] (See also the property (i) in [16, Theorem 1.3]) states that if $f\in\mathcal{S}\setminus\{0\}$ then $\frac{1}{f(1/x)}\in\mathcal{S}$. Applying this property to $h_1(t)$ brings out

$$h(t) = \frac{1}{h_1(1/t)} \in \mathcal{S}$$
 (2.32)

which means, by the relation from the very ends of the inclusions (1.4), that $h(t) \in \mathcal{C}[(0,\infty)]$ and, by the relation (1.6), that $\frac{1}{h(t)} \in \mathcal{B}[(0,\infty)]$.

In [25, p. 24, Remark 3.11], it was listed as examples that $h_2(t) = t^{\beta} \in \mathcal{B}[(0, \infty)]$ for $0 < \beta < 1$ and $h_3(t) = \frac{t}{1+t} \in \mathcal{B}[(0, \infty)]$. The item (iii) of Corollary 3.7 in [25, p. 20] write that if $f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{B}[(0, \infty)]$ then $f_1 \circ f_2 \in \mathcal{B}[(0, \infty)]$. Applying f_1 and f_2 respectively to h_2 and h_3 reveals once again that $\frac{1}{h(t)} = \sqrt{\frac{t}{1+t}} \in \mathcal{B}[(0, \infty)]$.

respectively to h_2 and h_3 reveals once again that $\frac{1}{h(t)} = \sqrt{\frac{t}{1+t}} \in \mathcal{B}[(0,\infty)]$. Taking $h_3(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$ and $h_4(t) = \frac{1}{h(t)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+1/t}}$. It is easy to see that $h_3 \in \mathcal{C}[(0,1)]$ and $0 < h_4(t) < 1$. A part of Theorem 3.6 in [25, p. 19] asserts that if $0 < f \in \mathcal{B}[(0,\infty)]$ then $g \circ f \in \mathcal{C}[(0,\infty)]$ for every $g \in \mathcal{C}[(0,\infty)]$. Since $h_4 \in \mathcal{B}[(0,\infty)]$, applying f and g in this assertion respectively to h_4 and h_3 leads to $H(t) = h(t) + \frac{1}{h(t)} \in \mathcal{C}[(0,\infty)]$. The proof of Lemma 2.1 is completed.

Lemma 2.2. For $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$, the complex functions h(z) and $\frac{1}{h(z)}$ have integral representations

$$h(z) = 1 + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{\frac{1}{u} - 1} \, \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{u + z} \tag{2.33}$$

and

$$\frac{1}{h(z)} = 1 - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{u} - 1}} \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{u + z}.$$
 (2.34)

Consequently, the functions h(t) and $1 - \frac{1}{h(t)}$ are Stieltjes functions and the complex function H(z) has the integral integral representation

$$H(z) = 2 + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \rho(s) e^{-zs} \, ds$$
 (2.35)

for $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$, where

$$\rho(s) = \int_0^{1/2} q(u) \left[1 - e^{-(1-2u)s} \right] e^{-us} \, du = \int_0^{1/2} q\left(\frac{1}{2} - u\right) \left(e^{us} - e^{-us}\right) e^{-s/2} \, du$$
(2.36)

is nonnegative on $(0, \infty)$ and

$$q(u) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{u} - 1} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1/u - 1}}$$
 (2.37)

on (0,1).

Proof by Cauchy integral formula. By standard arguments, we immediately obtain that

$$\lim_{z \to 0} [zh(z)] = \lim_{z \to 0} \sqrt{z^2 + z} = \sqrt{\lim_{z \to 0} (z^2 + z)} = 0, \tag{2.38}$$

$$\lim_{z \to 0} \frac{z}{h(z)} = \lim_{z \to 0} \sqrt{\frac{z^3}{1+z}} = \sqrt{\lim_{z \to 0} \frac{z^3}{1+z}} = 0,$$
 (2.39)

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{z}} = \sqrt{1 + \lim_{z \to \infty} \frac{1}{z}} = 1, \tag{2.40}$$

$$\lim_{z \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{z}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \lim_{z \to \infty} \frac{1}{z}}} = 1,$$
(2.41)

$$h(\overline{z}) = \overline{h(z)}, \tag{2.42}$$

$$\frac{1}{h(\overline{z})} = \overline{\left[\frac{1}{h(z)}\right]}. (2.43)$$

For $t \in (0, \infty)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\begin{split} h(-t+i\varepsilon) &= \sqrt{1+\frac{1}{-t+i\varepsilon}} = \sqrt{1+\frac{-t-i\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}} = \exp\left[\frac{1}{2}\ln\left(1+\frac{-t-i\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right)\right] \\ &= \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\ln\left|\frac{t^2+\varepsilon^2-t}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-i\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right| + i\arg\left(\frac{t^2+\varepsilon^2-t}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-i\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right)\right]\right\} \\ &= \exp\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\ln p(t,\varepsilon) + i\arg\left(\frac{t^2+\varepsilon^2-t}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-i\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right)\right]\right\} \\ &= \left\{\exp\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\ln p(t,\varepsilon) + i\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right]\right\}, \qquad t^2+\varepsilon^2-t>0, \\ &= \left\{\exp\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left[\ln p(t,\varepsilon) + i\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-\pi\right)\right]\right\}, \qquad t^2+\varepsilon^2-t<0, \\ &\exp\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left(\ln\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-i\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right\}, \qquad t^2+\varepsilon^2-t=0, \end{split}$$

where

$$p(t,\varepsilon) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{t^2 + \varepsilon^2 - t}{t^2 + \varepsilon^2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2 + \varepsilon^2}\right)^2}.$$

Hence,

$$\Im h(-t+i\varepsilon) = \begin{cases} \exp\left[\frac{1}{2}\ln p(t,\varepsilon)\right] \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right), & t^2+\varepsilon^2-t>0; \\ \exp\left[\frac{1}{2}\ln p(t,\varepsilon)\right] \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-\frac{\pi}{2}\right), & t^2+\varepsilon^2-t<0; \\ -\exp\left(\frac{1}{2}\ln\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right) \sin\frac{\pi}{4}, & t^2+\varepsilon^2-t=0. \end{cases}$$

Accordingly,

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im h(-t + i\varepsilon) = \begin{cases} -\sqrt{\frac{1}{t} - 1}, & 0 < t < 1; \\ \infty, & t = 1; \\ 0, & t > 1. \end{cases}$$
 (2.44)

Similarly, for $t \in (0, \infty)$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{h(-t+i\varepsilon)} &= \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\ln\left(1+\frac{-t-i\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right)\right] \\ &= \begin{cases} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\ln p(t,\varepsilon) + i\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}\right]\right\}, & t^2+\varepsilon^2-t>0; \\ \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\ln p(t,\varepsilon) + i\left(\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2}-\pi\right)\right]\right\}, & t^2+\varepsilon^2-t<0; \\ \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\ln\frac{\varepsilon}{t^2+\varepsilon^2} - i\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right\}, & t^2+\varepsilon^2-t=0. \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Therefore,

$$\Im \left[\frac{1}{h(-t+i\varepsilon)} \right] =$$

$$\begin{cases} -\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \ln p(t,\varepsilon) \right] \sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{t^2 + \varepsilon^2} \right), & t^2 + \varepsilon^2 - t > 0; \\ -\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \ln p(t,\varepsilon) \right] \sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{t^2 + \varepsilon^2} - \frac{\pi}{2} \right), & t^2 + \varepsilon^2 - t < 0; \\ \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\varepsilon}{t^2 + \varepsilon^2} \right) \sin \frac{\pi}{4}, & t^2 + \varepsilon^2 - t = 0. \end{cases}$$

Consequently,

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im \left[\frac{1}{h(-t+i\varepsilon)} \right] = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{t}{1-t}}, & 0 < t < 1; \\ \infty, & t = 1; \\ 0, & t > 1. \end{cases}$$
 (2.45)

Let D be a bounded domain with piecewise smooth boundary. The famous Cauchy integral formula (See [8, p. 113]) reads that if f(z) is analytic on D, and f(z) extends smoothly to the boundary of D, then

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\partial D} \frac{f(w)}{w - z} \, \mathrm{d}w, \quad z \in D.$$
 (2.46)

For any fixed point $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$, choose $0 < \varepsilon < 1$ and r > 0 such that $0 < \varepsilon < |z| < r$, and consider the positively oriented contour $C(\varepsilon, r)$ in $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$ consisting of the half circle $z = \varepsilon e^{i\theta}$ for $\theta \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ and the half lines $z = x \pm i\varepsilon$

for $x \leq 0$ until they cut the circle |z| = r, which close the contour at the points $-r(\varepsilon) \pm i\varepsilon$, where $0 < r(\varepsilon) \to r$ as $\varepsilon \to 0$. See Figure 1.

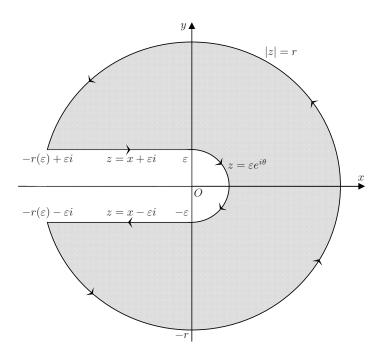


FIGURE 1. The contour $C(\varepsilon, r)$

By the above mentioned Cauchy integral formula, we have

$$h(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C(\varepsilon,r)} \frac{h(w)}{w - z} dw$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[\int_{\pi/2}^{-\pi/2} \frac{i\varepsilon e^{i\theta} h(\varepsilon e^{i\theta})}{\varepsilon e^{i\theta} - z} d\theta + \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{h(x + i\varepsilon)}{x + i\varepsilon - z} dx \right]$$

$$+ \int_{0}^{-r(\varepsilon)} \frac{h(x - i\varepsilon)}{x - i\varepsilon - z} dx + \int_{\arg[-r(\varepsilon) - i\varepsilon]}^{\arg[-r(\varepsilon) + i\varepsilon]} \frac{ire^{i\theta} h(re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta} - z} d\theta \right].$$
(2.47)

By the limit (2.38), it follows that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \int_{\pi/2}^{-\pi/2} \frac{i\varepsilon e^{i\theta} h(\varepsilon e^{i\theta})}{\varepsilon e^{i\theta} - z} d\theta = 0.$$
 (2.48)

In virtue of the limit (2.40), it can be derived that

$$\lim_{\substack{\varepsilon \to 0^+ \\ r \to \infty}} \int_{\arg[-r(\varepsilon) - i\varepsilon]}^{\arg[-r(\varepsilon) + i\varepsilon]} \frac{ire^{i\theta}h(re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta} - z} d\theta = \lim_{r \to \infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{ire^{i\theta}h(re^{i\theta})}{re^{i\theta} - z} d\theta = 2\pi i. \quad (2.49)$$

Making use of the limits (2.42) and (2.44) yields that

$$\int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{h(x+i\varepsilon)}{x+i\varepsilon-z} \, \mathrm{d}x + \int_{0}^{-r(\varepsilon)} \frac{h(x-i\varepsilon)}{x-i\varepsilon-z} \, \mathrm{d}x = \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \left[\frac{h(x+i\varepsilon)}{x+i\varepsilon-z} - \frac{h(x-i\varepsilon)}{x-i\varepsilon-z} \right] \, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{(x - i\varepsilon - z)h(x + i\varepsilon) - (x + i\varepsilon - z)h(x - i\varepsilon)}{(x + i\varepsilon - z)(x - i\varepsilon - z)} dx$$

$$= \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{(x - z)[h(x + i\varepsilon) - h(x - i\varepsilon)] - i\varepsilon[h(x - i\varepsilon) + h(x + i\varepsilon)]}{(x + i\varepsilon - z)(x - i\varepsilon - z)} dx$$

$$= 2i \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{(x - z)\Im h(x + i\varepsilon) - \varepsilon \Re h(x + i\varepsilon)}{(x + i\varepsilon - z)(x - i\varepsilon - z)} dx$$

$$\to 2i \int_{-r}^{0} \frac{\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im h(x + i\varepsilon)}{x - z} dx$$

$$= -2i \int_{0}^{r} \frac{\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im h(-t + i\varepsilon)}{t + z} dt$$

$$\to -2i \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im h(-t + i\varepsilon)}{t + z} dt$$

$$= 2i \int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{\frac{1}{t} - 1} \frac{dt}{t + z}$$

as $\varepsilon \to 0^+$ and $r \to \infty$. Substituting equations (2.48), (2.49), and (2.50) into (2.47) and simplifying produce the integral representation (2.33).

Similarly, by the above mentioned Cauchy integral formula, we have

$$\frac{1}{h(z)} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{C(\varepsilon,r)} \frac{1/h(w)}{w-z} dw$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[\int_{\pi/2}^{-\pi/2} \frac{i\varepsilon e^{i\theta} \left[1/h(\varepsilon e^{i\theta}) \right]}{\varepsilon e^{i\theta} - z} d\theta + \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{1/h(x+i\varepsilon)}{x+i\varepsilon - z} dx \right]$$

$$+ \int_{0}^{-r(\varepsilon)} \frac{1/h(x-i\varepsilon)}{x-i\varepsilon - z} dx + \int_{\arg[-r(\varepsilon)+i\varepsilon]}^{\arg[-r(\varepsilon)+i\varepsilon]} \frac{ire^{i\theta} \left[1/h(re^{i\theta}) \right]}{re^{i\theta} - z} d\theta \right].$$
(2.51)

From the limit (2.39), it follows that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+} \int_{\pi/2}^{-\pi/2} \frac{i\varepsilon e^{i\theta} \left[1/h \left(\varepsilon e^{i\theta} \right) \right]}{\varepsilon e^{i\theta} - z} \, \mathrm{d}\theta = 0. \tag{2.52}$$

By virtue of the limit (2.41), it may be deduced that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^+ \atop c \to 0} \int_{\arg[-r(\varepsilon) - i\varepsilon]}^{\arg[-r(\varepsilon) + i\varepsilon]} \frac{ire^{i\theta} \left[1/h \left(re^{i\theta} \right) \right]}{re^{i\theta} - z} \, \mathrm{d}\theta = 2\pi i. \tag{2.53}$$

Employing the limits (2.43) and (2.45) yields that

$$\int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{1/h(x+i\varepsilon)}{x+i\varepsilon-z} dx + \int_{0}^{-r(\varepsilon)} \frac{1/h(x-i\varepsilon)}{x-i\varepsilon-z} dx$$

$$= 2i \int_{-r(\varepsilon)}^{0} \frac{(x-z)\Im[1/h(x+i\varepsilon)] - \varepsilon \Re[1/h(x+i\varepsilon)]}{(x+i\varepsilon-z)(x-i\varepsilon-z)} dx$$

$$\to 2i \int_{-r}^{0} \frac{\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im[1/h(x+i\varepsilon)]}{x-z} dx \quad \text{as } \varepsilon \to 0^{+}$$

$$\to -2i \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0^{+}} \Im h(-t+i\varepsilon)}{t+z} dt \quad \text{as } r \to \infty$$

$$= -2i \int_0^1 \sqrt{\frac{t}{1-t}} \, \frac{\mathrm{d}t}{t+z}. \tag{2.54}$$

Substituting equations (2.52), (2.53), and (2.54) into (2.51) and simplifying produce the integral representation (2.34).

Adding (2.33) and (2.34) leads to

$$H(z) = 2 + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 q(u) \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{u+z}$$

$$= 2 + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 q(u) \int_0^\infty e^{-(u+z)s} \, \mathrm{d}s \, \mathrm{d}u$$

$$= 2 + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \left[\int_0^1 q(u) e^{-us} \, \mathrm{d}u \right] e^{-zs} \, \mathrm{d}s.$$

Utilizing q(u) = -q(1-u) for $u \in (0,1)$ or $q(\frac{1}{2}+u) = -q(\frac{1}{2}-u)$ for $u \in (0,\frac{1}{2})$ results in

$$\begin{split} \int_0^1 q(u)e^{-us} \,\mathrm{d}u &= \int_0^{1/2} q(u)e^{-us} \,\mathrm{d}u + \int_{1/2}^1 q(u)e^{-us} \,\mathrm{d}u \\ &= \int_0^{1/2} q(u)e^{-us} \,\mathrm{d}u + \int_0^{1/2} q(1-u)e^{-(1-u)s} \,\mathrm{d}u \\ &= \int_0^{1/2} q(u) \big[e^{-us} - e^{-(1-u)s}\big] \,\mathrm{d}u = \int_0^{1/2} q(u) \big[1 - e^{-(1-2u)s}\big]e^{-us} \,\mathrm{d}u \geq 0 \end{split}$$

or

$$\int_0^1 q(u)e^{-us} du = \int_0^{1/2} q\left(\frac{1}{2} - u\right)e^{-(1/2 - u)s} du + \int_0^{1/2} q\left(\frac{1}{2} + u\right)e^{-(1/2 + u)s} du$$

$$= \int_0^{1/2} q\left(\frac{1}{2} - u\right)\left[e^{-(1/2 - u)s} - e^{-(1/2 + u)s}\right] du$$

$$= \int_0^{1/2} q\left(\frac{1}{2} - u\right)\left(e^{us} - e^{-us}\right)e^{-s/2} du$$

$$\ge 0.$$

The proof of Lemma 2.2 is thus completed.

Proof by Stieltjes-Perron inversion formula. The property (x) in [16, Theorem 1.3] formulates that if $f \in \mathcal{S}$ then $f^{\alpha}(0^{+}) - f^{\alpha}(\frac{1}{t}) \in \mathcal{S}$ for $0 \le \alpha \le 1$. Since $h(t) \in \mathcal{S}$, see (2.32), and, by the property (i) in [16, Theorem 1.3], $\frac{1}{h(1/t)} \in \mathcal{S}$, replacing f by $\frac{1}{h(1/t)}$, making use of the easy fact that $f(0^{+}) = \lim_{t \to 0^{+}} f(t) = 1$, and letting $\alpha = 1$ yield $1 - \frac{1}{h(t)} \in \mathcal{S}$.

For a Stieltjes function f given by (1.3), by the Stieltjes-Perron inversion formula in [14, p. 591], we can determine the scalars $a = \lim_{x\to 0^+} [xf(x)]$ and $b = \lim_{x\to \infty} f(x)$ and the measure

$$\mu(s) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{t \to 0^+} \Im \int_{-\infty}^{-s} f(u+ti) \, \mathrm{d}u, \qquad (2.55)$$

as done in [3, 15]. Specially, for the function h(x), since $a = \lim_{x\to 0^+} [xh(x)] = 0$ and $b = \lim_{x\to\infty} h(x) = 1$, we have

$$h(z) = 1 + \int_0^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}\Phi(u)}{u+z} \tag{2.56}$$

for $|\arg z| < \pi$, where

$$\Phi(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{s \to 0^+} \int_u^{\infty} \Im \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\tau - is}} \, d\tau = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_u^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\tau} - 1} \, d\tau$$

when $0 < \tau < 1$ and $\Phi(u) = 0$ when $\tau > 1$ because taking $s \to 0^+$ we obtain

$$\Im\sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\tau - is}} = \Im\sqrt{\frac{-[\tau(1 - \tau) - s^2] - si}{\tau^2 + s^2}} \to -\sqrt{\frac{\tau(1 - \tau)}{\tau^2}}$$

when $0 < \tau < 1$ and $\Im \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\tau - si}} \to 0$ when $\tau > 1$. Thus we find

$$\Phi'(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{u} - 1}$$

when 0 < u < 1 and $\Phi'(u) = 0$ when u > 1. Substituting $\Phi'(u)$ in the representation (2.56) results in the formula (2.33).

The formula (2.34) for $\frac{1}{h(z)}$ or for $1 - \frac{1}{h(z)}$ can be derived in a similar way as above.

The rest is the same as in the first proof. Lemma 2.2 is proved once again.

3. The harmonic mean is a Bernstein function

Our results on the harmonic mean $H_{x,y}(t)$ may be stated as the theorem below.

Theorem 3.1. The harmonic mean $H_{x,y}(t)$ defined by (1.15) is a Bernstein function of t on $(-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y>0 with $x\neq y$ and has the integral representation

$$H_{x,y}(t) = H(x,y) + t + \frac{(x-y)^2}{4} \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-tu}) e^{-(x+y)u/2} du.$$
 (3.1)

Consequently,

$$H(x,y) = A(x,y) - \frac{(x-y)^2}{2} \int_0^\infty e^{-(x+y)u} du$$
 (3.2)

$$H(s, y + s) = s + \frac{y^2}{4} \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-su}) e^{-yu/2} du, \quad s > 0.$$
 (3.3)

Proof. The harmonic mean $H_{x,y}(t)$ meets

$$H'_{x,y}(t) = \frac{2\left[x^2 + y^2 + 2(x+y)t + 2t^2\right]}{(x+y+2t)^2} = 1 + \frac{(x-y)^2}{(x+y+2t)^2} > 1.$$
 (3.4)

It is obvious that the derivative $H'_{x,y}(t)$ is completely monotonic with respect to t. As a result, the harmonic mean $H_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function of t on $(-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y>0 with $x\neq y$.

In [1, p. 255, 6.1.1], it was listed that, for $\Re z>0$ and $\Re k>0$, the classical Euler gamma function

$$\Gamma(z) = k^z \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-kt} \, \mathrm{d}t. \tag{3.5}$$

This formula can be rearranged as

$$\frac{1}{z^w} = \frac{1}{\Gamma(w)} \int_0^\infty t^{w-1} e^{-zt} \, \mathrm{d}t$$
 (3.6)

for $\Re z > 0$ and $\Re w > 0$. Combining (3.6) with (3.4) yields

$$H'_{x,y}(t) = 1 + (x - y)^2 \int_0^\infty u e^{-(x+y+2t)u} \, \mathrm{d}u, \tag{3.7}$$

and so, by integrating with respect to $t \in (0,s)$ on both sides of (3.7), the formula (3.1) follows.

Letting $s \to \infty$ on both sides of (3.1) and using the limit $\lim_{s \to \infty} [H_{x,y}(s) - s] =$ A(x,y) generate the formula (3.2).

Taking
$$x \to 0^+$$
 in (3.1) produces (3.3). Theorem 3.1 is thus proved.

Remark 3.1. By [7, pp. 161-162, Theorem 3] or [25, p. 45, Proposition 5.17], it can be derived that the reciprocal of the harmonic mean $H_{x,y}(t)$, that is, the function $\frac{1}{A(1/(x+t),1/(y+t))}$, is logarithmically completely monotonic. This logarithmically complete monotonicity can also be proved by considering

$$\left[\ln H_{x,y}(t)\right]' = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + 2(x+y)t + 2t^2}{(x+t)(y+t)(x+y+2t)} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{x+t} + \frac{1}{y+t}\right) \left[1 + \frac{(x-y)^2}{(x+y+2t)^2}\right]$$

and that the product and sum of finitely many completely monotonic functions are also completely monotonic functions.

Moreover, from (3.4), it follows readily that $H_{x,y}(t) - t$ is an increasing function in $t \in (-\min\{x, y\}, \infty)$ for x, y > 0 with $x \neq y$.

4. The geometric mean is a Bernstein function

Our results on the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ can be summarized as two theorems.

Theorem 4.1. Let x, y > 0 with $x \neq y$. Then the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ defined by (1.16) is a Bernstein function of t on $(-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$.

We supply three proofs of Theorems 4.1.

First proof. By a direct differentiation, we have

$$G'_{x,y}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{x+t}{y+t}} \frac{x+y+2t}{2(x+t)}.$$

Taking the logarithm on both sides of the above equality creates

$$\ln G'_{x,y}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{x+t}{y+t} + \ln \frac{x+y+2t}{2(x+t)}.$$
 (4.1)

In [1, p. 230, 5.1.32], it was collected that for a > 0 and b > 0,

$$\ln \frac{b}{a} = \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-au} - e^{-bu}}{u} \, \mathrm{d} \, u. \tag{4.2}$$

Using this formula in (4.1) leads to

$$\ln G_{x,y}'(t) = \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-(x+t)v} + e^{-(y+t)v} - 2e^{-v[(x+t) + (y+t)]/2}}{2v} \,\mathrm{d}\,v.$$

Since the function e^{-t} is convex on \mathbb{R} , we have

$$e^{-(x+t)v} + e^{-(y+t)v} - 2e^{-v[(x+t)+(y+t)]/2} > 0.$$

Therefore, we have

$$[\ln G'_{x,y}(t)]^{(k)} = \frac{(-1)^k}{2} \int_0^\infty \left\{ e^{-(x+t)v} + e^{-(y+t)v} - 2e^{-v[(x+t)+(y+t)]/2} \right\} v^{k-1} \, \mathrm{d}v.$$

This means that the derivative $G'_{x,y}(t)$ is logarithmically completely monotonic, and so it is also completely monotonic. As a result, the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function.

Second proof. It is clear that the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ satisfies

$$G'_{x,y}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{\frac{x+t}{y+t}} + \sqrt{\frac{y+t}{x+t}} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sqrt{u} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \right) \triangleq f(u) \tag{4.3}$$

and

$$[\ln G_{x,y}(t)]' = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{x+t} + \frac{1}{y+t} \right), \tag{4.4}$$

where

$$u \triangleq u_{x,y}(t) = \frac{x+t}{y+t} = 1 + \frac{x-y}{y+t}.$$
 (4.5)

If 0 < x < y, then $0 < u_{x,y}(t) < 1$ for $t \in (-x, \infty)$ and $u'_{x,y}(t) = \frac{y-x}{(y+t)^2}$ is completely monotonic in $t \in (-x, \infty)$. On the other hand, the function f(u) is positive and

$$f^{(i)}(u) = \frac{1}{2} \left[(-1)^{i-1} \frac{(2i-3)!!}{2^i} u^{-(2i-1)/2} + (-1)^i \frac{(2i-1)!!}{2^i} u^{-(2i+1)/2} \right]$$
$$= \frac{(-1)^i (2i-3)!!}{2^{i+1}} \frac{1}{u^{(2i-1)/2}} \left(\frac{2i-1}{u} - 1 \right)$$

for $i \in \mathbb{N}$, which implies that the function f(u) is completely monotonic on (0,1); A ready modification of a conclusion in [5, p. 83] yields the following conclusion: If g and h' are completely monotonic functions such that g(h(x)) is defined on an interval I, then $x \mapsto g(h(x))$ is also completely monotonic on I; So, when y > x > 0, the derivative $G'_{x,y}(t)$ is completely monotonic and the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function. Consequently, considering the symmetric property $G_{x,y}(t) = G_{y,x}(t)$, it is easily obtained that the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ for $t \in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ with $x \neq y$ is a Bernstein function.

Remark 4.1. From the equality in (4.3), it is easy to derive that the function $G_{x,y}(t) - t$ is increasing in $t \in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y>0 with $x \neq y$.

From (4.4), it is immediate to deduce that the reciprocal of the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ is a logarithmically completely monotonic function of $t \in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$ for x,y>0 with $x\neq y$.

Third proof. By (4.3) and (4.5), it follows that

$$G'_{x,y}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left[h\left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right) + \frac{1}{h\left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right)} \right] = \frac{1}{2} H\left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right)$$
(4.6)

and

$$[G'_{x,y}(t)]^{(i)} = \frac{1}{2(x-y)^i} H^{(i)} \left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right)$$

for $i \in \{0\} \cup \mathbb{N}$. By the formula (2.5) in Lemma 2.1, we have

$$\begin{split} [G'_{x,y}(t)]^{(i)} &= \frac{(-1)^i}{2^{i+1} \left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right)^{i+1} (x+t)^i h\left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right)} \\ &\times \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \frac{(i-1)!(i+1)!(2i-2k-1)!!}{(i-k-1)!(i-k+1)!k!} 2^k \left(\frac{y+t}{x-y}\right)^k, \end{split}$$

which means that, when x > y, the derivative $G'_{x,y}(t)$ is completely monotonic. Since $G_{x,y}(t) = G_{y,x}(t)$, when x < y, the derivative $G'_{y,x}(t)$ is also completely monotonic. This implies that the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function of $t \in (-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$.

Theorem 4.2. For x > y > 0 and $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, -y]$, the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(z)$ has the integral representation

$$G_{x,y}(z) = G(x,y) + z + \frac{x-y}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\rho((x-y)s)}{s} e^{-ys} (1 - e^{-sz}) \, \mathrm{d}s, \tag{4.7}$$

where the function ρ is defined by (2.36). Consequently, the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function of t on $(-\min\{x,y\},\infty)$.

Proof. For x > y > 0 and $z \in \mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, -y]$, making use of

$$G'_{x,y}(z) = \frac{1}{2} \left[h\left(\frac{y+z}{x-y}\right) + \frac{1}{h\left(\frac{y+z}{x-y}\right)} \right] = \frac{1}{2} H\left(\frac{y+z}{x-y}\right)$$

and (2.35) gives

$$G'_{x,y}(z) = 1 + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty \rho(s) \exp\left(-\frac{y+z}{x-y}s\right) \mathrm{d}s.$$

Integrating with respect to z from 0 to w on both sides of the above equation and interchanging the order of integrals yield

$$G_{x,y}(w) - G_{x,y}(0) = w + \frac{x - y}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\rho(s)}{s} \exp\left(-\frac{ys}{x - y}\right) \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{sw}{x - y}\right)\right] ds$$
$$= w + \frac{x - y}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\rho((x - y)s)}{s} e^{-ys} (1 - e^{-ws}) ds.$$

Since $G_{x,y}(0) = G(x,y)$, the integral representation (4.7) is readily deduced.

By the characterization expressed by (1.7) and the integral representation (4.7) applied to $z = t \in (-\min\{x, y\}, \infty)$, it is immediate to see that the geometric mean $G_{x,y}(t)$ is a Bernstein function of t on $(-\min\{x, y\}, \infty)$.

Remark 4.2. Taking $z \to \infty$ in (4.7) and using $\lim_{z\to\infty} [G_{x,y}(z)-z]=A(x,y)$ yield

$$A(x,y) = G(x,y) + \frac{x-y}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\rho((x-y)s)}{s} e^{-ys} \, \mathrm{d}s \ge G(x,y). \tag{4.8}$$

The equality in (4.8) is valid if and only if x = y. This gives a new proof of the fundamental and well known AG mean inequality.

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